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Are humus forms, mesofauna and microflora in subalpine forest soils sensitive to thermal conditions?

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Abstract

This study focuses on the biological and morphological development of humus profiles in forested Italian Alpine soils as a function of *climate*. Humus form description, systematic investigation of microannelid communities and polyphasic biochemical fingerprinting of soil microbial communities (denaturing gradient gel electrophoresis – DGGE and phospholipid fatty acid analysis - PLFA) were performed to compare sites differing in mean annual temperature due to different altitude and exposure.

Although the soil biota showed complex responses, several differences in soil biological properties seem to be due to thermal differences. Although soil acidity also determines biological properties, it is not a state factor but rather influenced by them. The thickness of the organic layer and the acidification of the subjacent mineral horizon increased under cooler conditions (north-exposure; higher altitude), whereas the thickness of the A horizon inversely decreased. Species richness of microannelid assemblages was higher under warmer conditions (south-exposure; lower altitude) and the vertical distribution of microannelids shifted along the gradient to lower temperatures from predominant occurrence in the mineral soil to exclusive occurrence in the organic layer. Microbial biomass (total PLFA) was higher at the cooler sites; the prevalence of Gram-negative bacteria could be ascribed to their better adaptation to lower temperature, pH and nutrient contents. The $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ signatures of the PLFA markers suggested a lower decomposition rate at the cooler sites, resulting in a lower respiratory loss and an accumulation of weakly decomposed organic material. DGGE data supported the PLFA results. Both parameters reflected the expected thermal sequence.

This multidisciplinary case study provided indications of an association of *climate*, mesofauna and microbiota using the humus form as an overall link. More data are however needed and further investigations are encouraged.

Keywords: subalpine forest soils, humus forms, *climate*, microannelids, microbial community, microbial biomass

Introduction

Extreme environments such as high-altitude and high-latitude ecosystems are very sensitive to environmental changes (Diaz et al. 2003; Nemergut et al. 2005). Global warming is hypothesised to alter both above- and belowground processes affecting the soil ecosystem. This ecosystem is one of the most complex and dynamic biological systems on Earth and plays a major role in the biogeochemical cycles including weathering and nutrient dynamics (Young and Crawford 2004). Soil functionality depends, among others, on the functionality of soil biological communities (Nannipieri et al. 2003; Stark et al. 2008; Young et al. 1998).

Soil animals strongly affect microbial activity by altering the form of organic matter (OM). They fragment litter and mix it into the soil, which increases its susceptibility to microbial attack (Bardgett 2005). The relationship between microflora and saprophagous mesofauna allows hotspots and gradients of biological activity in a soil profile to be traced by the vertical distribution of mesofaunal actors such as enchytraeids (Galvan et al. 2008; Ponge 2003; Zanella et al. 2011a). At the species level enchytraeids are indicators of habitat conditions such as soil acidity or soil moisture. They are, therefore, often used in biological soil monitoring and assessment (Beylich and Graefe 2009; Graefe and Schmelz 1999; Jänsch et al. 2005).

The heterogeneity and discontinuity of the soil ecosystem render the assessment of the composition of microbial communities difficult (Nannipieri et al. 2003). Molecular techniques such as fingerprinting approaches based on nucleic acid- and phospholipid fatty acid revolutionised soil microbial ecology and have become routine methods for screening and monitoring complex soil microbial communities (e.g. Hirsch et al. 2010; Mannistö et al. 2007; Nakatsu 2007). Cellular biochemical constituents, such as lipids and nucleic acids, can be extracted directly from environmental samples without the need to store or culture microbes. Analysis of these constituents makes it possible to obtain biochemical fingerprints of communities and yields information about the taxonomy, functions, physiology, and abundance of community members (Green and Scow 2000). Climatic (and pedoclimatic) factors strongly influence the development of humus forms (Bonifacio et al. 2011; Ponge et al. 2011) which reflect the activity of different functional species groups of the soil fauna (e.g. epigeic, endogenic and anecic earthworms). The close relation between humus forms and the soil biota is based on the fact that humus forms result from the activity of soil organisms and at the same time act as habitat for them (Andreetta et al. 2011; Lalanne et al. 2008).

Due to the complexity of the soil system, the influence of *climate* on soil properties is not so easily detectable. Soil warming experiments can reveal information on the response of microbial communities and soil organic matter (SOM) with respect to direct higher temperatures. Many short- to long-term experiments in several ecosystems have been carried out so far. Some short-term experiments have shown that a rise in soil temperature increased the pool size of substrate C available for microbial respiration through a compositional and functional shift in microbial community

(e.g. Zogg et al. 1997). Longer-term studies have indicated that soil warming reduces microbial biomass and alters microbial community composition (e.g. Frey et al. 2008). Egli et al. (2010a,b) predicted that a warmer *climate* could intensify microbial activities in cold subalpine and alpine zones, which could cause consequent changes in humus chemistry and soil organic carbon content. Similarly, Hagedorn et al. (2008) state that elevated CO₂ can accelerate the turnover of native SOM and may thus induce increasing losses of old C from thick organic layers of alpine soils. However, global *climate* change involves not only changes in air and soil temperatures, but also in soil moisture and vegetation. Therefore, the complex interactions of the various factors involved should be considered when assessing potential influences of future *climate* change (Budge et al. 2011). One possibility to study long-term effects of environmental factors (and in particular *climate*) on soil properties is to use sequences as defined by Jenny (1941, 1980). According to Jenny (1941), soils are understood to develop under the influence of the state-factors *parent material, climate, topography, biological activity* and *time*. In order to be quantitatively useful, Jenny (1941) suggested treating the state factors as independent variables, in the sense that field locales exist where the factors can be considered to vary independently. The ways in which a factor is considered to be independent is (1) if the range of variability of the factor is quite small and (2) if variation in the factor is large, it has only a negligible effect on the property studied.

In the present study we focused on the state factor *climate* and its influence on soil biological characteristics. Sites were chosen (according to the paradigm of Jenny, 1941) having the same topography, parent material, surface age and vegetation. The thermal conditions are the only environmental driver that differed between the sites. The soil organisms have been assessed in terms of diversity (evenness and richness) and vertical distribution of microfauna (microannelids) and microflora (bacteria, fungi) along the profiles. We hypothesised that i) thermal-related differences can be detected in the soil biota and ii) humus forms can be used as an indicator of soil biodiversity. According to the chosen sites (see below), we assumed that an altitude difference of 300 m should equalize the thermal effect of north vs. south exposure. The humus form is the seat of feed-back interactions, within the topsoil of a given local ecosystem, among roots, animals and associated biodegrader communities (Ehrenfeld et al. 2005; Zanella et al. 2011b). Changing the ecological frame (*climate, parent material, human pressure, history*), the system evolves consequently into new biocenoses characterized by adapted humus forms (Ponge 2003). Consequently, we assumed that the biological parameters and the humus forms trace back the thermal conditions of the chosen soil profiles. Furthermore, we hypothesised that the humus forms are the morphological link between SOM decay and soil biota.

Material and methods

104 *Study sites, soil sampling and sample preparation*

105

106 *Experimental approach and study area*

107 The soil profiles were selected from an existing soil cartography study and soil inventory (Sartori and Mancabelli 2009)
108 and have been previously found to be typical and representative for the main parameters (altitudinal zones and
109 exposure) affecting soil biotic and abiotic properties (Egli et al. 2009, 2010a,b). Geochemical characteristics of
110 subalpine to alpine forest soils as a function of exposure and *climate* have been already accurately evaluated (Egli et al.
111 2007, 2009, 2010a,b). Due to the detailed biological and biochemical analyses (see below), only a very limited number
112 of sites could be studied. Two pairs of soil profiles in the subalpine range in Val di Fassa (Southern Alps, Trento, Italy)
113 were investigated. Each pair consisted of a north- and south-facing site. One pair (site Sorda) was located at about 1600
114 m asl and the other (site San Nicolò) at about 1900 m asl (Table 1).

115 Differences in surface temperature between north- and south-facing sites in Alpine areas is usually between 2-3°C.
116 Combined together with a mean annual temperature gradient of 0.65°C/100 m (Sboarina and Cescatti 2004), then the
117 following thermal sequence for the chosen sites is given (Table 1):
118 Sorda 1 (1620 m asl, south) > Sorda 4 (1640 m asl, north) ≥ San Nicolò 4 (1915 m asl, south) > San Nicolò 2 (1920 m
119 asl, north).

120 The investigated soils have developed on basaltic latite (morainic material) and are Umbric (Sorda site) and Entic
121 (San Nicolò) Podzols (IUSS Working Group WRB 2006). All sites have a natural forest (ecological forestry; Piceetum).
122 Maximum precipitation occurs during the summer and autumn months. Using such an approach, a first database and
123 insight into biotic and abiotic relationships can be gained. The sites do not differ with respect to the state factors (Jenny,
124 1941) except for *climate* (different mean annual temperatures and different exposures). Following this paradigm,
125 differences between sites (and corresponding soil properties) should be largely attributed to the state factor *climate*.

126

127 *Soil sampling*

128 Special attention was given to ensure that the soils, according to their macromorphology, showed no sign of erosion or
129 burial (undisturbed evolution). Sampling was done according to the morphology of the soils, as a soil horizon is a rather
130 uniform compartment with typical chemical and mineralogical processes. Soils were sampled in July 2008. For
131 physical-chemical analysis, 2 – 4 kg of soil material was collected per soil horizon from the 4 soil pits. Undisturbed soil
132 samples down to the C horizon were taken. The soil samples were air-dried; large aggregates were gently broken by
133 hand and sieved to <2 mm (fine earth). Following ISO 23611-3 (2007), the analysis of microannelid fauna was carried
134 out using a split soil corer (diameter 5 cm) taking one soil sample per site to a depth of 30 – 45 cm, depending on the

thickness of the topsoil. The soil column was divided using a knife into subsamples of 5 cm depth intervals starting at the top of the organic layer. Subsamples were transported in plastic bags to the laboratory. For molecular analysis of soil microbial communities (PLFA-FAME; SSU rRNA gene fragment-PCR-DGGE) all the horizons of the opened soil profiles were vertically sampled in triplicate by using sterile Falcon tubes (50 ml), transported on ice to the laboratory and pooled together in order to obtain a composite sample of each horizon. Representative soil aliquots of each horizon/profile/site were sieved at 2 mm and stored at -20°C until DNA and PLFA extraction.

Humus forms

The description of the humus forms is based on two systems: European Humus Forms Reference Base (Zanella et al. 2011a) and the German system (KA5: Ad-hoc-AG-Boden 2005). The German name is given in brackets in the text. The horizon designation is according to the IUSS Working Group WRB (2006) and Soil Taxonomy (Soil Survey Staff 2010).

Microannelids

Depending on the profile and sequence of horizons, sampling was undertaken to a depth of 30-45 cm. Microannelid extraction from soil samples was performed over 48 h by a wet-funnel technique without heating (Dunger and Fiedler 1989; ISO 23611-3, 2007; van Vliet 2000). The extracted animals were counted and identified alive using both dissecting and light microscopy. Identification of the enchytraeid species was performed according to Schmelz and Collado (2010). Expert-knowledge based indicator values were used for assigning species to acidity indicator groups. Species with reaction values 1-3 according to Graefe and Schmelz (1999) were combined into ‘indicators of strong acidity’. Correspondingly, species with values 4-6 were combined into ‘indicators of moderate acidity’ and species with value 7 into ‘indicators of slight acidity’.

Soil microflora

Nucleic acid based genetic fingerprinting

Intracellular DNA (iDNA) was extracted from soil (0.5 g) by combining alkaline soil washings and mechanical chemical cell lysis, as described in Ascher et al. (2009a). Extracted iDNA was quali-quantitatively characterised by agarose gel electrophoresis and spectrophotometer measurements (Picodrop), respectively. Bacterial community 16S rRNA gene fragment-PCR was performed on 80 ng iDNA with the universal primers GC968f/UNI1401r (Nübel et al. 1996) as described in Ascher et al. (2010). The PCR products, 100 ng of 473 bp amplicons, were analysed by DGGE on

a 10% polyacrylamide gel (Acrylamide/Bisacrylamide 37.5:1) with an urea-formamide denaturant gradient of 45%-65% (100% denaturant contains 7 M urea and 40% formamide) at constant temperature (60°C) and voltage (100 V) for 16 hours (Ascher et al. 2010). Actinomycetes were additionally assessed as bacterial key stone species involved in humification processes by 16S rRNA gene fragment-PCR-DGGE using a half nested PCR approach (Heuer et al. 1997) on 40 ng iDNA with the primer set 243f/1401r (1st round PCR; 1175 bp) and GC968f/UNI1401r (2nd round PCR). The DGGE conditions were those described for bacteria. Fungal community 18S rRNA gene fragment-PCR-DGGE was performed using a nested PCR approach on 40 ng iDNA with the primer set NS1f/NS8r (1st round PCR) and the GC-clamped primer set EF4f/NS3GC (2nd round PCR with 2 µl of the first PCR product) (Ascher et al. 2009b). The final products, 100 ng of 500 bp amplicons, were analysed on a 10% polyacrylamide gel with a denaturant gradient of 30%-45% at constant temperature (58°C) and voltage (85 V) for 18 hours. DNA extractions, quantitative and qualitative analysis, PCR (MyCycler Thermocycler; Biorad), and DGGE (Ingeny PhorU system, Ingeny, Leiden, NL) were carried out in triplicates. DGGE gels were stained with SybrGreen I (1:10 000; FMC Bio Products, Rockland, ME USA; 2 h) prior to image analysis (GelDoc, Biorad).

Phospholipid fatty acid - fatty acid methyl ester analysis (PLFA-FAME)

Phospholipid fatty acids were extracted from soil (1 g) and derivatised to FAMES using the method of Bligh and Dyer (1959) as adapted by White et al. (1979). The quantification and isotopic composition of individual FAMES was determined using a GC Trace Ultra with combustion column attached via a GC Combustion III to a Delta V Advantage isotope ratio mass spectrometer (all Thermo Finnigan, Bremen, Germany). Samples (2 µl) were injected in splitless mode onto a J&W Scientific HP-5 column, 50 m length, ID 0.2 mm with a film thickness of 0.33 µm (Agilent Technologies Inc, Santa Clara, USA); running conditions were as described by Paterson et al. (2007). Quantification of individual PLFAs was achieved based on the combined area of the mass peaks $m/z = 44, 45$ and 46 after background subtraction and comparison with a 19:0 internal FAME standard added to each sample. The C isotope ratios were calculated with respect to a CO₂ reference gas injected with every sample and traceable to International Atomic Energy Agency reference material NBS 19 TS-Limestone. The C isotope ratios of FAMES were corrected for the C present in the methyl group added during derivatization using a mass balance equation. The precision of the $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ measurement of individual PLFAs was obtained from the $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ values of the added 19:0 FAME internal standard which should remain constant; for all horizons this value was $-32.80 \pm 0.39 \text{ ‰}$ (mean \pm SD, $n = 16$). The PLFAs used to indicate Gram-negative bacteria, Gram-positive bacteria, actinomycete and fungi were as described by Paterson et al. (2008).

Statistics

Similarities of microannelid structures as function of exposure, altitude, site and soil depth (vertical distribution) were assessed on the basis of presence-absence data of microannelid species (similarity index; Sørensen 1948) and reported in a trellis diagram. Principal component analysis (PCA) was performed on the relative abundance (percentage of total) of the total phospholipid fatty acid (PLFA) concentrations to assess for differences in microbial community structure. Thirty three individual PLFAs (variables) contributed to the total PLFA pool. Each sample was treated as an individual. No *a priori* knowledge of either the site or soil depth was assumed. Similarities between microbial communities as a function of the assessed multiple parameters were assessed by the Dice similarity index based UPGAMA (unweighted pair group method using arithmetic averages) analysis of DGGE fingerprints using the Quantity One version 4.5.1. (Biorad). Pair-wise comparisons of prominent microbial community members/populations based on absence or presence of unique and shared DGGE bands were utilized and the resulting similarities (%) in microbial community structures among the studied soils were visualised by dendrograms.

Results

Soil mesofauna (microannelids) and humus forms

Sorda 1 south-facing (Fig. 1a, Table 2)

The extraction yielded a total of 145 animals which corresponds to an abundance of 74000 microannelids per square meter. Most animals (45%) were found in the topmost 5 cm which encompassed the entire organic layer (consisting of the Oi and Oe horizon) and the first 2 cm of the A horizon. With depth, the population density decreased at first rapidly and then more gradually along the A and BA horizon. Few worms were found yet in the lowest section reaching the Bs horizon. Thirteen different species were identified, all belonging to the family of Enchytraeidae. Species of the genus *Fridericia* (together 64%) and *Buchholzia appendiculata* (20%), a species inhabiting mainly the upper part of the humus profile, were the most dominant. *Buchholzia appendiculata* is a frequent species occurring at almost all sites. On the one hand the species is typical of the organic layer, on the other hand it is an indicator of slightly acid conditions. Grouping of species according to their tolerance of soil acidification reveals that 99% of the recorded animals are indicators of slightly acidic conditions. This is in agreement with the measured pH values ranging from 5.0 in the A horizon (Appendix A) to 6.3 in the Oe horizon (measured in field colorimetrically). The humus form (Table 1) is an intergrade type having features of a mull and a moder (KA5: F-Mull; ERB: Hemimoder). It is characterised by the absence of an Oa horizon, the presence of endogeic earthworms (*Octolasion lacteum*) and significant microannelid

227 activity in the A and BA horizon down to 45 cm depth. The vertical gradients of microannelid abundance and fungal
228 and bacterial biomass in the mineral soil largely coincided (Fig. 1).

229
230 *Sorda 4 north-facing (Fig. 1b, Table 2)*

231 A total of 239 microannelids were extracted from the soil sample corresponding to 122000 animals per horizon. Their
232 distribution was mainly restricted to the first 25 cm. The majority of animals (78%) were found in the upper 15 cm
233 consisting of organic layers (Oi, Oe, Oa) and the AE horizon. Ten species were recorded, of which 9 belong to the
234 family of Enchytraeidae and one to Polychaete (*Hrabeiella periglandulata*). Highly dominant were *Marionina clavata*
235 (26%) and *Cognettia sphagnetorum* (24%), two species that are indicators of strongly acid conditions, whereas
236 *Hrabeiella* (19%) is an indicator of moderate acidity. The former were found to live in the more acid horizons with high
237 organic matter content including the AE, the latter in the less acid mineral soil underneath (Bs horizon). The humus
238 form is a typical moder (KA5: Typic moder; ERB: Eumoder), because of the presence of an Oa horizon and the absence
239 of endogeic earthworms in the mineral soil (no signs of endovermic activity were found). Typical for this soil is the
240 gradual transition between the Oa and AE horizon which were difficult to separate morphologically. The vertical
241 gradients of microannelid abundance and fungal and bacterial biomass show highest biological activities in the organic
242 layer decreasing abruptly at the border of the very acid organic/mineral horizons. In contrast to Sorda 1, where the pH
243 values are not very low, the pH(CaCl₂) of the AE horizon at Sorda 4 is below 4.2 (aluminium buffer range), which may
244 be toxic for some organisms.

245
246 *San Nicolò 4 south-facing (Fig. 1c, Table 2)*

247 Two hundred and thirty two microannelids were extracted from the soil sample corresponding to 118000. The majority
248 of microannelids (61%) were found in the first 5 cm representing the organic layer and including a 3 cm thick Oa
249 horizon. The population density decreased with depth, first rapidly and then more gradually along the AE and BA
250 horizon to near zero in the Bs horizon. Thirteen different species were identified all belonging to the family
251 Enchytraeidae. Dominant species in all soil depths were *Buchholzia appendiculata* (64%) and to a lesser extent *Henlea*
252 *perpusilla* (12%) which occurred solely in the AE and BA horizon. The great majority (97%) of the extracted
253 enchytraeids were indicators of slightly acidic soil conditions. This is in agreement with the measured pH (CaCl₂)
254 ranging from 4.8 in the AE horizon to 5.1 in the BA horizon (Appendix A). By digging the soil pit, two specimens of
255 *Aporrectodea rosea* and one specimen of *Octolasion lacteum* were found. Both species belong to the endogeic
256 earthworms. The humus form is classified as Dysmoder (ERB) due to the presence of an Oa horizon, endogeic
257 earthworms in the mineral soil (*Aporrectodea rosea* and *Octolasion lacteum*) and a significant but not dominant

258 microannelid activity in the AE and BA horizon down to 25 cm depth. According to Graefe and Beylich (2006) the
259 humus form is an Amphi. The vertical gradients of microannelid abundance and bacterial biomass showed highest
260 values in the organic layer, whereas fungal biomass was conspicuously lower there.

261
262 *San Nicolò 2 north-facing (Fig. 1d, Table 2)*

263 The extraction yielded a total of 80 microannelids corresponding to 41000. All animals were found in the organic layer,
264 most of them (58%) in the first 5 cm consisting of Oi and Oe. No microannelid activity could be detected in the E
265 horizon underlying the organic layer. 6 species were recorded, all belonging to the family of Enchytraeidae. The most
266 dominant were *Henlea perpusilla* (36%) and *Buchholzia appendiculata* (35%). Both species are indicators of slight soil
267 acidity. In contrast, *Cognettia sphagnetorum* (15%) is an indicator of strong acidity and occurred only in the first 5 cm.
268 The pH of the organic layer (pH 5.0 measured in the Oi horizon) was unexpectedly high, but is in a full agreement with
269 the species composition of microannelids, dominated by indicators of slight acidity. This interesting phenomenon could
270 probably be due to some slope dynamics such as melt water run-off. It may explain the occurrence of mull-typical
271 microannelids (*Buchholzia appendiculata*, *Henlea perpusilla*) in the Mormoder profile. The humus form is an
272 aeromorphic mor (KA5: Mormoder; ERB: Humimor; Graefe and Beylich 2006: F-Moder) because of the zoogenic
273 transformation of litter resulting in the sequence Oi-Oe-Oa, the sharp transition between Oi horizon and E horizon and
274 the restriction of microannelid activity to the less acidic organic layer.

275 At all sites the vertical distribution of microannelids exhibited the highest density in the uppermost 5 cm of the
276 profile. This section always included the organic layer (very thick at San Nicolò 2) or parts of it. Similar patterns
277 emerge from the microbial data, thus providing evidence that the organic layer is the hotspot of biological activity in all
278 four studied soil profiles (Fig. 1).

279 280 **Soil microflora**

281 282 **Microbial biomass**

283 The total PLFA concentrations, indicating the microbial biomass, decreased markedly with soil depth. This same trend
284 was observed in the individual PLFA markers (Table 3). The decrease in bacterial PLFA with depth was relatively
285 greater than that of the fungal PLFA as indicated by a decrease in the fungi/bacteria ratio (Table 3). The most abundant
286 PLFA of soil was 16:0, a general biomass marker, followed respectively by 18:1 ω 7 indicative of Gram-negative
287 bacteria, 18:1 ω 9 indicative of both fungi and bacteria and 18:2 ω 6,9 also indicative of fungi. Microbial biomass was
288 found to be affected by all the evaluated parameters. The abundance (stocks) of PLFA was higher (in the topsoil as well

as over the whole soil profile; Table 3) at the north-facing site of Sorda compared to the south-facing site. In contrast to this, no such pronounced differences were observed at the site San Nicolò, suggesting a combined site and horizon effect masking the possible effect. The exposure effect becomes more evident when bacterial and fungal biomasses of the topsoils (south vs. north) were compared. With increasing altitude (and thus a cooler *climate*), the stocks (topsoil and whole soil profile) of total PLFA and fungi seem to increase. If we relate, however, total PLFA and fungi to the amount of org. C present in the soil, the situation completely changes. At the south facing sites, more total PLFA and fungi are present per gram C (Table 4). At all sites, however, the org. C-standardised amount of PLFA, fungi etc. decreases with soil depth indicating that the corresponding activity is in any case highest in the topsoil. The yields of soil intracellular DNA (iDNA), representing an alternative/additional index of the microbial biomass (Ascher et al. 2009a, b), supported our obtained PLFA data (especially in the topsoil; Table 3; Fig. 2).

Microbial community structure

DGGE patterns were interpreted in terms of microbial community composition (diversity, dice similarity index based UPGAMA cluster analysis; absence-presence of bands) and phylotype richness (number of bands representing prominent populations of the communities) (Fig. 3). To facilitate the interpretation of the multiple factors (thermal conditions, soil depth) influencing microbial community structures, the main results are summarised in Table 5.

The evaluation of the exposure effect (north vs. south) showed the bacterial and fungal communities of both study sites (Sorda and San Nicolò) to be similar at the 48% and 15-20% level, respectively, suggesting a general effect of solar radiation on microbial community structures. The parameter soil depth generally discriminated top- from bottom-soil microbial communities, revealing fungi to be more affected with respect to bacteria. The parameter site generally selected microbial communities and was more pronounced for fungi (15%) than for bacteria (38%). The general lowest similarity and by inference the highest response to all the studied parameters was recorded for actinomycetes (5%).

A higher microbial richness was recorded for the San Nicolò site with respect to the Sorda site, suggesting a site effect (or thermal effect in general); this finding was in line with the overall PLFA abundances as well as individual PLFA markers.

By summing up all DGGE bands (phylotypes) of all studied soils (exposure/depth/site) (Fig. 3), the DGGE patterns seem to indicate more complex bacterial than fungal communities in terms of phylotype richness. This finding is supported by the respective PLFA data, indicative of bacterial and fungal biomass (Table 3) and DGGE cluster analyses of microbial community structures, showing higher similarities among bacteria (48%) than among fungi (15-20%) (Table 5).

Principal component analysis (PCA) was performed to assess the relative abundance and distribution of total phospholipid fatty acids (PLFAs) in all studied soils (Fig. 2). The space on the PCA graph of the relative abundance of PLFAs occupied by the top two horizons of the Sorda 4 (north-facing, 1640 m asl) and San Nicolò 4 (south-facing, 1915 m asl) profiles overlapped and differed from the space occupied by the top two horizons of both the Sorda 1 (south-facing, 1620 m asl) and San Nicolò 2 (north-facing, 1920 m asl) profiles (Fig. 2). This suggests that the microbial community structures of Sorda 4 and San Nicolò 4 – the sites with very similar thermal conditions at the soil surface - are most similar to each other. The fact that the space occupied by the subsoils differs from the topsoils provides additional evidence of a changing microbial community structure with depth. The latent vectors (loadings) of PCA score 1 indicated that the PLFAs 18:0 and 10-Me-18:0 had the greatest influence on the separation along this horizontal axis, with loadings of -0.31 and -0.29 respectively. 18:0 is possibly plant root derived and 10-Me-18:0 indicative of actinomycetes. In contrast, along the PCA score 2 axis, the loadings of -0.35 and 0.28 for 16:1 ω 11t and 18:1 ω 9 respectively, were most relevant. 18:1 ω 9 is indicative of fungi while 16:1 ω 11t does not represent a particular microbe group.

Consequently, the PCA data seem to trace back the thermal conditions (Table 1). From a thermal point of view, the following sequence (from warmer to cooler sites; with ‘>’ as ‘warmer than’) is expected: Sorda 1 (1620 m asl, south) > Sorda 4 (1640 m asl, north) \geq San Nicolò 4 (1915 m asl, south) > San Nicolò 2 (1920 m asl, north).

The low concentrations of PLFA found in the subsoils precluded an accurate C isotope determination of the less abundant PLFAs (Table 3). Of the four most abundant PLFAs, only 16:00, present in most microbes, showed a significant change in $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ with depth (i.e. enrichment in ^{13}C). In general, with increasing altitude and at north-facing sites (topsoils), the $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ of 16:00, 18:1 ω 7 and 18:1 ω 9 became slightly more negative. Consequently, the source of C utilised by the microbes is more enriched in the lighter ^{12}C indicating a less degraded OM fraction.

Discussion

The site effect, which contains a thermal signal due to the altitudinal difference of about 300 m, and to exposure (south vs. north), seems to exert an influence on mesofaunal and microbial communities, especially in the topsoil. The state factors *parent material*, *age*, *topography* and *organisms (vegetation)* do not vary among the sites. These factors can be, according to the paradigm of Jenny (1941, 1980), considered as constant or negligible. Differences in soil properties consequently should be mostly due to the state factor *climate* that is varying. Already earlier investigations in the North Italian Alps of the Trentino evidenced that *climate* exerts an influence on chemical and mineralogical soil properties (Egli et al. 2009, 2010a,b). Consequently, it was assumed that also soil biological properties must reflect climatic and thermal properties.

350

351 *Mesofauna and humus forms*

352 At Sorda, the humus form is changing between mull (ERB: Hemimoder; KA5: F-Mull) at the south-facing site and
 353 moder (ERB: Eumoder; KA5: Typic moder) at the north-facing site indicating a difference in humus forming processes.
 354 In mull, endogeic earthworms are mixing organic matter (OM) into the mineral soil and thus expanding the habitat for
 355 soil dwellers and reducing it for organic layer dwellers. At the south-facing site Sorda, this is evidenced by the deeper
 356 and the more even distribution of microannelids in the mineral soil, in contrast to the north-facing site where they are
 357 concentrated in large numbers in the upper part of the profile. At San Nicolò, the humus form varies between mull-
 358 moder (Graefe and Beylich 2006: Amphi; ERB: Dysmoder) at the south-facing and aeromorphic mor (KA5: Mormoder;
 359 ERB: Humimor) at the north-facing site. Compared to Sorda, the humus forms at San Nicolò indicate a shift to a slower
 360 decomposition of OM due to lower temperatures at the higher altitude. At the south-facing site the mixing activity of
 361 endogeic earthworms still occurred but not sufficiently to prevent the formation of an Oa (ERB: OH) horizon.
 362 According to ERB (Zanella et al. 2011a) such a system is defined as humus form amphi. Nonetheless, the sites with
 363 mull, amphi and moder humus forms showed high abundances of microannelids indicating a relatively high biological
 364 activity and a balanced OM turnover. The north-facing site at San Nicolò, however, underwent a longer phase of humus
 365 accumulation. The coincidence of a thick Oe (ERB: OF) horizon and the sparse number of microannelids indicates a
 366 low biological activity and may be an evidence that humus accumulation is still ongoing.

367 Although the number of observations is low, a tendency of thermal effects on the earthworms activity and
 368 microannelid composition was observed (Table 6). Our findings are in line with those of Salmon et al. (2008) who
 369 reported higher soil fauna activity at south- compared to north-facing sites. As known from previous investigations
 370 (summarised e.g. in Didden et al. 1997), the humus form as well as soil pH belong to the determining factors shaping
 371 the structure of microannelid communities. In the present study, the highest species number (13) was found at both
 372 south-facing sites. Furthermore, these sites showed highest similarity in species composition as expressed by the
 373 Sørensen index (Table 6). The overwhelming majority of species are indicators of slight acidity (Sorda 99%, San Nicolò
 374 97%). Generally, indicators of slight acidity are associated with the humus forms mull and amphi that show no signs of
 375 strong acidification in the A horizon. A pH-value below 4.2 (CaCl₂) is considered being critical for the occurrence of
 376 these species (Graefe and Beylich 2003, 2006). The pH at both south-facing sites is above that value (Fig. 1). The north-
 377 facing sites of Sorda and San Nicolò exhibited lower species numbers of microannelids which is typical for humus
 378 forms (Moder, Mor) without mixing activity of earthworms (Beylich and Graefe 2009; Zanella et al. 2011a). At these
 379 sites soil acidification has progressed as far as to the aluminium buffer range. Soils with low OM content in that buffer
 380 range can be toxic for earthworms and microannelids (Graefe and Beylich 2003). This seems to be the case in the E

horizon at San Nicolò (north-facing). At Sorda (north-facing) the AE horizon was even more acidified, but rich in OM that prevents more toxic effects. The microannelids occurring in this horizon are almost exclusively indicators of strong acidity. If we consider the whole profile, half of the microannelids belong to this indicator group; the other half split into indicators of moderate (22%) and slight acidity (28%). Compared to the Sorda site, the proportion of indicator groups at San Nicolò is more shifted towards indicators of slight acidity (73%). This may be due to the higher pH values found in the organic layer.

The overall findings of the four studied sites demonstrate that exposure and altitude – and consequently the thermal conditions – seem to effect the microannelids population and the decomposer system. This demonstrates that the impact of exposure is probably stronger than previously assumed. The ecological similarity between the four studied sites is visualised (Fig. 4) based on the relative abundance of acidity indicator groups present in the microannelid assemblage.

Microbial biomass

Changes in microbial biomass due to thermal conditions (exposure, altitude) were found to be site-specific (Table 3). In contrast, Margesin et al. (2009) did not discover any significant differences in microbial communities in subalpine soils of the Austrian Central Alps. We measured a higher amount of Gram-negative than Gram-positive bacteria (Table 3). Higher amounts of both bacteria types in the topsoil were detected at the northern slope than at the southern slopes. The higher proportion of Gram-negative bacteria at north-facing sites and higher altitudes (cooler *climate*) can be ascribed to their better adaptation (compared to Gram-positive bacteria) to lower temperature, pH and nutrient contents (Margesin et al. 2009). The increased amount of these types of bacteria is, however, also due to the amount of org. C present. In fact, the concentration of these types of bacteria per gram C is at south-facing sites higher (Table 4). The amount of organic C in these environments is usually strongly related to *climate* (Egli et al. 2009) with a higher amount at north-facing and cooler sites. The highest amount of actinomycete biomass (abundance of 10-Me-18:0) was found in the organic-matter-rich horizons of all the studied profiles, supporting their role in humification processes (OM turnover). Actinomycetes (Gram-positive bacteria) are important members of the forest floor decomposer community and contribute to humification processes in natural soils along with white-rot fungi (Trigo and Ball 1994). The actinomycete abundance correlated with the amount of OM (org C and N; C stab and C lab) and pH (Appendix A). This is in agreement with findings of Jayasinghe and Parkinson (2008). High actinomycete abundance does, however, not necessarily indicate a high biodegradability of OM in the soil. The more intense acidification at north-facing alpine soils, the cooler *climate* and the higher podzolisation are suggested to be responsible for lower humification rates as indicated by the higher C/N ratios of the SOM and a higher amount of labile OM (Appendix A; Egli et al. 2009).

Microbial community structures

A generic view on microbial communities inhabiting the soil profiles indicates similarly strong thermal (due to exposure) effects on actinomycetes (5% similarity between south- and north-facing) > fungi (15 - 20%) > bacteria (48%; Table 5) for both sites (Sorda, San Nicolò). The evaluation of the site effect suggested a selective pressure on actinomycetes (5%) > fungi (15%) > bacteria (38%; Table 5). Furthermore, soil depth affected soil microbial community structures as reported by others (Douterelo et al. 2010; Fierer et al. 2003). This phenomenon can be ascribed to the fact that soil horizons are uniform compartments with typical physical-chemical and mineralogical characteristics (Egli et al. 2009, 2010a,b). In contrast to Margesin et al. (2009), our DGGE data also indicated a thermal effect on microbial community structures with generally lower similarities in fungal (15 - 20%) with respect to bacterial communities (48%) (Table 5). Although the acidity of the soils was not very pronounced due to the latitic and base-cation-rich parent material, a tendency to lower pH values at cooler sites seems to exist. The pH is among the most important factors influencing soil microbial structures (Mannistö et al. 2007).

The generally stronger response (lower similarities; DGGE) of actinomycete communities (5%) than of bacterial communities (48%) (Table 5, Fig. 3) to all evaluated parameters suggests that the actinomycete communities are a sensitive key population, capable of most accurately indicating shifts in community composition induced by environmental changes (Heuer et al. 1997). Due to their role in C degradation/humification processes, actinomycetes are strongly related to soil properties such as OM and pH. PLFA data (10-Me-18:0) supported the sensitivity of actinomycetes to environmental gradients as they mainly contributed to the separation along the horizontal axis (PCA score 1, Fig. 2).

The analysis of relative abundance and distribution of total PLFAs in all studied soils revealed the highest similarity of microbial communities between the top soil communities of the north-facing Sorda 4 (1640 m asl) site and the south-facing San Nicolò 4 site (1915 m asl). This fact corresponds to the expected thermal sequence (Table 1). This particular phenomenon was supported in part by the DGGE data; similarities of bacterial and fungal communities were found at a 48% and 39% level, respectively (Fig. 3). Furthermore, distinct differences in DGGE patterns are discernible for bacteria at the community level and are even more expressed at the group level (actinomycete patterns), suggesting thermal effects in terms of exposure (north vs. south) and altitude effects (Fig. 3). Lower temperatures, a higher soil humidity and more acidic conditions at the cooler sites stimulate, on the one hand, weathering processes and, on the other, affect the soil organisms (Egli et al. 2007, 2009, 2010a,b).

The most abundant individual PLFAs markers in all studied soil profiles were 16:0 (most microorganisms), 18:1 ω 7 (Gram-negative bacteria), 18:1 ω 9 (fungi and bacteria) and 18:2 ω 6,9 (fungi). The average ^{13}C enrichment of the 16:0 from the top to the bottom of the profile of 1.5 ‰ is consistent with previously observed ^{13}C enrichment of SOM with

depth (Agnelli et al. 2007; Boström et al. 2007; Risk et al. 2009). The more depleted $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ values of 18:206,9 compared to the other PLFAs (Table 3) may reflect its mycorrhizal origin. As such, it would have obtained most of its carbon from host plants rather than direct assimilation of soil carbon. The differences in $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ values of 16:00, 18:107 and 18:109 must most probably be attributed to respiratory loss of ^{12}C -enriched CO_2 .

Due to a lower microbial activity at the cooler sites, the average nutrient source for these microbes should be slightly enriched in ^{12}C (more less-degraded OM accumulates). Lower $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ values are indicative of less-decomposed OM and also a cooler *climate*, due to retarded decomposition processes. This agrees with the observations of Ning et al. (2006). In fact, less or weakly decomposed OM is encountered in soils at cooler sites (usually at higher altitudes or north-facing sites; see Egli et al. 2010a,b).

Conclusions

We obtained indications that thermal conditions (due to differences in altitude and exposure) – and consequently the state factor *climate* – seem to influence biotic soil characteristics (mesofauna and microflora) and related macromorphological properties (humus forms). Although soil acidity or nutrient availability are certainly important variables that also regulate biological properties, they are finally determined by the state factors.

To our knowledge this is one of the first studies that attempts to link (micro)biological factors to macromorphological soil properties and thermal conditions. Our preliminary, multidisciplinary results show that humus forms seem to be a good indicator for the soil biota (micro- and macro-biology). A larger dataset is, however, missing and additional investigations are necessary. High-altitude soils are predicted to experience a rapid warming in the future with distinct consequences for SOM quality, quantity (Egli et al. 2010a,b) or soil organisms (Budge et al. 2011). It is consequently of utmost interest to know which changes may occur with respect to soil biology and which might be key parameters for a monitoring and/or spatial extrapolation.

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Table 1 Characteristics of the study sites in Val di Fassa – Southern Alps (Italy)

Valley (locality)	Elevation	Exposure	Slope	^a MAT	^b MAP	^c Thermal sequence	Parent material	Vegetation	Surface age ^d	Land use	Soil type (IUSS Working Group WRB 2006); Soil Taxonomy (Soil Survey Staff 2010)	Humus form (ERB: Zanella et al. 2011a)	Humus form (adapted from Ad- hoc-AG- Boden 2005)
	(m asl)	(°N)	(°)	(°C)	(mm/y)								
Val di Fassa (Sorda 1)	1620	165	35	4.2	1100	3	Basaltic latite debris	Piceetum	15-18ka	Natural forest (ecological forestry)	Umbric Podzol (Episkeletic) Typic Haplorthod	Hemimoder	F-Mull
Val di Fassa (San Nicolò 4)	1915	195	33	2.5	1200	≤2	Basaltic latite debris	Piceetum	15-18ka	Natural forest (ecological forestry)	Umbric Podzol (Endoskeletal) Typic Haplohumod	Dysmoder	^e Amphi
Val di Fassa (Sorda 4)	1640	350	36	4.1	1100	2	Basaltic latite debris	Piceetum	15-18ka	Natural forest (ecological forestry)	Umbric Podzol (Endoskeletal) Typic Haplohumod	Eumoder	Typic Moder
Val di Fassa (San Nicolò 2)	1920	300	29	2.5	1200	1	Basaltic latite debris	Piceetum	15-18ka	Natural forest (ecological forestry)	Entic Podzol (Endoskeletal) Typic Haplohumod	Humimor	Mormoder

^aMAT = mean annual temperature (temperature at a standard altitude of 2 m above ground); ^bMAP = mean annual precipitation (according to Leidlmair 1996)

^cThermal sequence considers energy input due to solar radiation (south > north) and MAT. Ranking from the warmest (3) to the coldest (1) site.

^dFavilli et al. (2009), Egli et al. (2009)

^eModified according to Graefe and Beylich (2006)

Table 2 Microannelid species extracted from 4 topsoil profiles in Val di Fassa (Italy) and their ecological classification with respect to soil acidity























	Sorda 1 south	Sorda 4 north	Nicolò 4 south	Nicolò 2 north	Acidity indicator group
Enchytraeidae					
 <i>Bryodrilus ehlersi</i>	-	1	-	1	strong
 <i>Buchholzia appendiculata</i>	29	59	142	28	slight
 <i>Cognettia sphagnetorum</i>	2	56	2	12	strong
 <i>Enchytraeus buchholzi</i>	11	1	-	-	slight
 <i>Enchytraeus christensenii</i>	2	-	12	-	slight
 <i>Enchytraeus norvegicus</i>	-	-	1	-	moderate
 <i>Enchytronia oligosetosa</i>	-	1	-	-	slight
 <i>Enchytronia parva</i>	-	3	4	-	moderate
 <i>Fridericia bisetosa</i>	7	-	3	-	slight
 <i>Fridericia bulboides</i>	5	-	10	-	slight
 <i>Fridericia christeri</i>	-	-	1	-	slight
 <i>Fridericia paroniana</i>	-	-	6	-	slight
 <i>Fridericia cf. stephensoni</i>	-	2	-	9	moderate
 <i>Fridericia waldenstroemi</i>	24	-	1	-	slight
 <i>Fridericia</i> sp. juv.	57	6	18	1	slight
 <i>Hemifridericia parva</i>	1	-	4	-	slight
 <i>Henlea perpusilla</i>	2	-	28	29	slight
 <i>Henlea ventriculosa</i>	1	-	-	-	slight
 <i>Marionina argentea</i>	2	-	-	-	slight
 <i>Marionina brendae</i>	2	-	-	-	slight
 <i>Marionina clavata</i>	-	62	-	-	strong
Polychaeta					
 <i>Hrabeiella periglandulata</i>	-	48	-	-	moderate
Total of extracted microannelids	145	239	232	80	
Abundance (individuals m ⁻²)	73 848	121 722	118 157	40 744	
Number of species	13	10	13	6	
Shannon diversity index	1.81	1.61	1.44	1.38	
Evenness	0.71	0.70	0.56	0.77	
Indicators of strong acidity	1%	50%	1%	16%	
Indicators of moderate acidity	0%	22%	2%	11%	
Indicators of slight acidity	99%	28%	97%	73%	

Table 3 R1

Table 3 PLFA concentrations and $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ signature (‰) of the most abundant PLFAs in the studied soil profiles of Val di Fassa (Trentino, Italy). Bacteria used to calculate the fungal to bacteria ratio was defined as the sum of Gram-negative bacteria, Gram-positive bacteria and actinomycete. Microbial biomass was also estimated by the amount of extracted intracellular DNA (iDNA; $n=3 \pm$ standard deviation). ~~In order to evidence differences as a function of the sites (Sorda vs. San Nicolò) and especially as a function of exposure (north vs. south), weighted means (wm) (taking the individual soil horizons into account) were calculated for the topsoil and the whole soil profile.~~ The total stocks of the individual components for the different altitudes (Sorda vs. San Nicolò) and exposure (north- vs- south) are also given (in mg/m^2). The total stocks were estimated considering the individual horizon thicknesses, bulk density, concentrations and soil skeleton (see Appendix A and Egli et al. 2009).

Site	^a Horizon	iDNA	Total PLFA	Gram-neg.	Gram-pos.	Actino-mycetes	Fungi	Fungi / Bacteria	16:00 microbes (generic)	18:1 ω 7 fungi, G-neg.	18:1 ω 9 fungi, bacteria	18:2 ω 6,9 fungi
(exposure)		$\mu\text{g g}^{-1}$ (\pm s.d.)	$\mu\text{g g}^{-1}$	$\mu\text{g g}^{-1}$	$\mu\text{g g}^{-1}$	$\mu\text{g g}^{-1}$	$\mu\text{g g}^{-1}$		$\delta^{13}\text{C}$ (‰)	$\delta^{13}\text{C}$ (‰)	$\delta^{13}\text{C}$ (‰)	$\delta^{13}\text{C}$ (‰)
Sorda 1 (south)	A	24.58 (0.6)	107.4	16.0	11.9	3.73	10.92	0.34	-27.89	-28.73	-26.03	-31.22
	BA	16.85 (1.3)	61.3	11.7	8.0	1.69	6.87	0.32	-26.86	-29.04	-25.31	-31.11
	Bs	4.46 (0.6)	17.7	4.1	2.6	0.47	0.83	0.12	-26.98	-28.88	-26.41	-31.34
Sorda 4 (north)	OE	27.41 (3.0)	296.7	56.3	36.7	4.70	40.47	0.41	-28.52	-29.36	-25.63	-32.31
	AE	40.42 (4.1)	246.7	57.5	38.5	7.32	4.97	0.05	-27.05	-31.7	-26.57	-31.86
	Bs1	23.02 (0.6)	95.7	21.1	17.5	3.27	3.41	0.08	-26.96	-30.29	-27.37	-32.54
	Bs2	10.84 (0.6)	20.2	3.9	4.08	0.63	1.36	0.16	-27.66	-29.03	-30.03	-34.01
San Nicolò 2 (north)	O	24.19 (6.6)	234.7	44.8	29.1	2.84	38.65	0.50	-28.59	-30.82	-26.25	-30.66
	E	25.96 (1.9)	139.0	28.8	16.7	3.99	15.64	0.32	-28.72	-31.84	-28.09	-31.94
	Bhs	17.05 (0.4)	82.0	18.9	18.4	3.04	1.31	0.03	-27.15	-29.89	-27.86	-32.42
	Bs	12.3 (2.6)	4.4	0.98	0.42	0.18		0.00	-26.54	-28.62	-29.23	^b
San Nicolò 4 (south)	O	22.65 (6.9)	238.1	43.1	38.1	6.21	11.63	0.13	-28.82	-29.34	-27.01	-30.84
	AE	21.89 (1.9)	250.0	41.2	31.6	4.50	33.44	0.43	-28.47	-29.62	-26.7	-30.88
	BA	23.25 (2.0)	107.3	19.3	18.7	2.19	8.74	0.22	-27.16	-29.73	-26.81	-31.28
	Bs1	24.96 (17.9)	30.2	5.42	5.2	0.78	3.19	0.28	-28.28	-30.09	-27.91	-32.53
	Bs2	21.69 (1.9)	11.6	2.49	2.0	0.36		0.00	-26.67	-27.76	-27.76	^b

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Stocks	(mg/m ²)							
Sorda	mean	3878	19455	3843	2736	540	1520	
San Nicolò	mean	7165	23587	4508	3641	510	2430	
Exposure								
South		6348	18337	3184	2617	466	1779	
North		4696	24705	5167	3759	584	2171	
Exposure (only topsoil)								
South		2825	15269	2579	2095	380	1590	
North		2274	18333	3753	2454	357	1991	

^aSoil depth (cm) of each horizon is reported in Appendix A; ^bPLFA concentration to low for accurate isotope analysis

Table 4 PLFA concentrations and iDNA values standardised to the measured org. C content in the corresponding horizons (see also Appendix A). No org. C data for the O and OE horizons were available.

Locality (exposure)	Horizon	iDNA $\mu\text{g gC}^{-1}$	Total PLFA $\mu\text{g gC}^{-1}$	Gram- neg. $\mu\text{g gC}^{-1}$	Gram- pos. $\mu\text{g gC}^{-1}$	Actino- mycetes $\mu\text{g gC}^{-1}$	Fungi $\mu\text{g gC}^{-1}$
Sorda 1 (south)	A	536	2340	349	259	81	238
	BA	691	2512	480	328	69	282
	Bs	213	847	196	124	22	40
Sorda 4 (north)	OE						
	AE	221	1350	315	211	40	27
	Bs1	268	1115	246	204	38	40
	Bs2	152	283	55	57	9	19
San Nicolò 2 (north)	O						
	E	180	964	200	116	28	108
	Bhs	176	844	195	189	31	13
	Bs	336	120	27	11	5	0
San Nicolò 4 (south)	O						
	AE	283	3234	533	409	58	433
	BA	459	2121	381	370	43	173
	Bs1	953	1153	207	198	30	122
	Bs2	1068	571	123	99	18	0

Table 5 Overview of the principal DGGE results (Fig. 3). Similarities (%) of microbial communities (bacteria, actinomycetes, fungi) as function of ~~thermal conditions~~ (exposure (south vs. north), altitude and site (Sorda vs. San Nicolò), and soil depth (horizon) ~~and~~ of the studied soil profiles in the Fassa valley (Southern Italian Alps)

Parameter	Sorda			San Nicolò		
Exposure	Number of clusters		Highest similarities	Number of clusters		Highest similarities
	South	North		South	North	
Bacteria	one (48%)		Top soils: BA-S/OE-N (58%)	one (48%)		Bottom-top soils: Bs2-S/OH-N (60%)
Actinomycetes	one (5%)		Bottom soils: Bs-S/Bs1-N (65%)	one (5%)		Bottom-top soils: Bs2-S/OH-N (80%)
Fungi	one (20%)		Top soils: A-S/OE-N (58%)	one (15%)		Bottom soils: Bs2-S/BHs-N (48%)
Parameter	Sorda			San Nicolò		
Horizons	Number of clusters		Highest similarities	Number of clusters		Highest similarities
	South	North		South	North	
Bacteria	one (65%)	three OE/AE/ Bs1,Bs2	Bottom soils-N: Bs1/Bs2 (80%)	three O/AE,BA, Bs1/Bs2	two OH,E/ Bhs,Bs	Top soils-S: O/AE (80%) Top soils-N: E /OH (82%)
Actinomycetes	two (38%) A,BA/Bs	four	Top soils-S: A/BA (79%)	three O/AE,BA, Bs1/Bs2	two OH,E,Bhs/ Bs	Top soils-S: AE/BA (65%)
Fungi	three (20%) A/BA/Bs	two	Bottom soils-N: Bs1/Bs2 (63%)	three O,Bs1/AE, BA/Bs2	three OH,E/Bhs/ Bs	Top soils-S: AE/BA (48%) Top soils-N: AE/BA (68%)
Parameter	Sorda (South and North) vs. San Nicolò (South and North)					
Site	Number of clusters					
Bacteria	two (38%)					
Actinomycetes	two (5%)					
Fungi	two (15%)					

Sorda (1620-1640 m asl):

South, Sorda 1: A (2-10 cm), BA (20-37 cm), Bs (37-55 cm)

North, Sorda 4: OE (0-5 cm), AE (5-15 cm), Bs1 (15-32 cm), Bs2 (32-50 cm)

San Nicolò (1915-1920 m asl):

South, San Nicolò 4: O (0-4 cm), AE (4-12 cm), BA (12-28 cm), Bs1 (28-50 cm), Bs2 (50-82 cm)

North-facing San Nicolò 2: OH (0-17 cm), E (17-28 cm), Bhs (28-55 cm), Bs (55-90 cm)

Table 6 Comparison of sites on the basis of presence-absence data of microannelid species in a trellis diagram (similarity index according to Sørensen 1948). Highest similarity is between sites with same exposure. The site Sorda north-facing shows the lowest similarity compared to both south-facing sites

	Sorda (south)	Nicolò (south)	Sorda (north)
Nicolò (south)	0.69		
Sorda (north)	0.35	0.35	
Nicolò (north)	0.42	0.42	0.63

Appendix A Physical-chemical properties of the investigated forest soils located in Val di Fassa. Stable and labile organic matter fractions and C/N ratios of the fine earth (< 2 mm)

Locality (exposure)	Horizon	Depth (cm)	Soil layer thickness (cm)	Bulk density (g/cm ³)	Munsell color (moist)	^a Sand g/kg	Silt g/kg	Clay g/kg	pH (CaCl ₂)	pH (H ₂ O)	org. C g/kg	N g/kg	C/N	^b Cstab (g kg ⁻¹)	^c Clab (g kg ⁻¹)
Sorda 1 (south)	A	2-10	20	0.87	10YR 2/2	710	170	120	5.0	5.7	45.9	2.20	19.4	8.0	39.7
	BA	20-37	17	1.01	7.5YR 2.5/2	560	230	210	5.3	5.9	24.4	1.40	14.4	6.0	16.9
	Bs	37-55	18	1.18	7.5YR 3/3	720	200	79	5.4	6.0	20.9	1.50	11.0	n.m.	n.m.
Sorda 4 (north)	OE	0-5	5	0.61											
	AE	5-15	10	0.61	7.5YR 2.5/1	660	210	130	3.7	4.6	182.7	9.10	19.9	34.8	138.6
	Bs1	15-32	17	0.46	5YR 3/2	530	380	88	4.4	5.8	85.8	3.80	19.7	13.6	72.2
	Bs2	32-50	18	0.92	7.5YR 3/3	590	360	50	4.8	6.0	71.3	3.00	23.7	15.1	43.6
San Nicolò 2 (north)	O	0-17	17	0.35											
	E	17-28	11	0.35	7.5YR 3/3	480	220	300	4.0	4.4	144.2	7.20	19.6	26.6	107.1
	Bhs	28-55	27	0.67	2.5YR 2.5/1	720	150	130	4.6	5.3	97.1	4.30	21.6	12.1	84.3
	Bs	55-90	35	1.12	2.5YR 3/2	890	80	30	4.7	5.7	36.6	2.40	13.5	n.m.	n.m.
San Nicolò 4 (south)	O	0-4	4	0.35											
	AE	4-12	8	0.77	7.5YR 3/2	590	250	160	4.8	5.4	77.3	5.00	15.4	15.5	57.3
	BA	12-28	16	0.77	7.5YR 2.5/2	610	240	150	5.1	5.6	50.6	3.70	12.0	11.9	36.8
	Bs1	28-50	22	0.86	5YR 3/3	580	260	160	5.3	6.2	26.2	2.00	13.0	9.2	17.0
	Bs2	50-82	32	0.82	7.5YR 4/4	640	260	100	5.5	6.3	20.3	1.50	10.9	7.9	12.4

^aSize fractions: sand = 2000 - 50 µm, silt = 50 - 2 µm, clay < 2 µm; n.m. = not measured.
^bCstab = stable organic carbon (resistant to H₂O₂ treatment); ^cClab = labile organic carbon (oxidised with H₂O₂)

Figure captions

Fig. 1 Microannelid species composition and abundance (animals 100 cm⁻³ soil) and PLFA concentration (µg g⁻¹ dry soil) indicating fungal and bacterial biomass (sum of Gram-negative bacteria, Gram-positive bacteria and actinomycete) as a function of ~~(exposure and altitude)~~ (thermal conditions) and soil depth in 4 soil profiles (Val di Fassa, Italy): A) Sorda 1 (1620 m asl), south-facing; B) Sorda 4 (1640 m asl north-facing), C) San Nicolò 4 (1915 m asl south-facing), D) San Nicolò 2 (1920 m asl north-facing). Colours indicate the individual species reported in Table 2.

¹) pH was measured in CaCl₂ solution (Appendix A). The pH of first few centimetres of the organic horizon was measured in the field colorimetrically

Fig. 2 Principal component analysis (PCA) of the relative abundance (percentage of total) of PLFAs present in the soils. Connecting lines join horizons of each treatment profile sequentially from the top to the bottom. The shaded ellipses indicate the space occupied by the top two horizons of each profile (Table 3). (South-facing sites: Val Sorda 1, San Nicolò 4; North-facing sites: Val Sorda 4, San Nicolò 2)

Fig. 3 Patterns of bacterial (top), actinomycete (middle) and fungal community (bottom) DGGE fingerprinting and dice-similarity based cluster analysis (UPGAMA) of the studied soil profiles (Val di Fassa, Trento, Italy). Community structures were analysed as ~~a function of thermal conditions~~ (exposure (south vs. north), altitude/site (Sorda vs. San Nicolò) and soil depth (horizon) in terms of diversity and vertical distribution. Numbers at the bottom of the DGGE gels indicate the phylotype richness of prominent community members. M, standardised DNA used as intra-gel DGGE marker (Mass Ruler™ DNA Ladder Mix; Fermentas). The main results are summarised in Table 4.

South- (S) and north- (N) facing sites of Sorda and San Nicolò (S. Nic.); horizons O, OE, A, AE, BA, Bs (1,2), E, BC (1,2), C; a,b,c replicates of PCR-DGGE

Fig. 4 Acidity indicator diagram of microannelid species assemblages. The position on the triangle shows the relative abundance (percentage of total) of three ecological species groups present in the soils (indicators of slightly acid, moderately acid and strongly acid conditions). The distances visualize the extent to which exposure (south vs. north) has changed the community structure

Figure 1 R1
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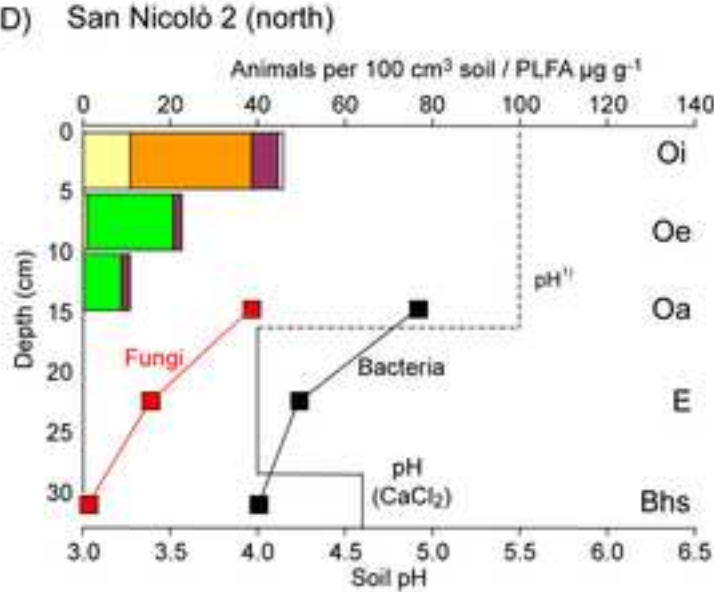
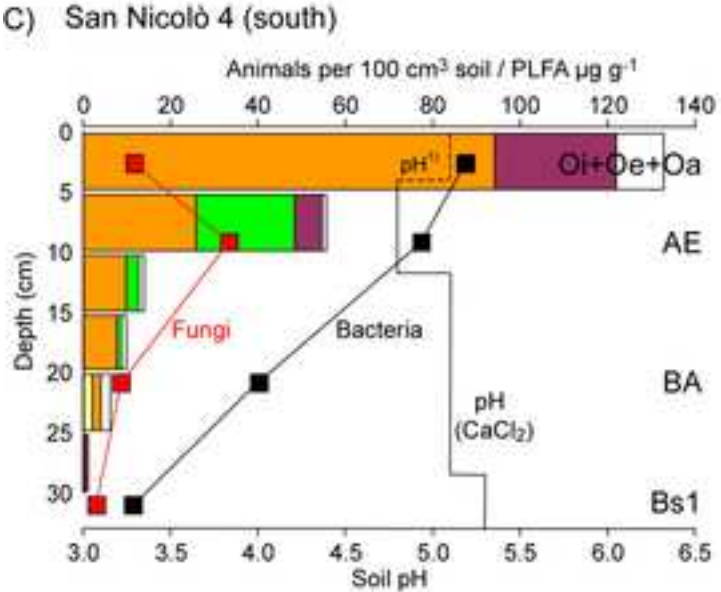
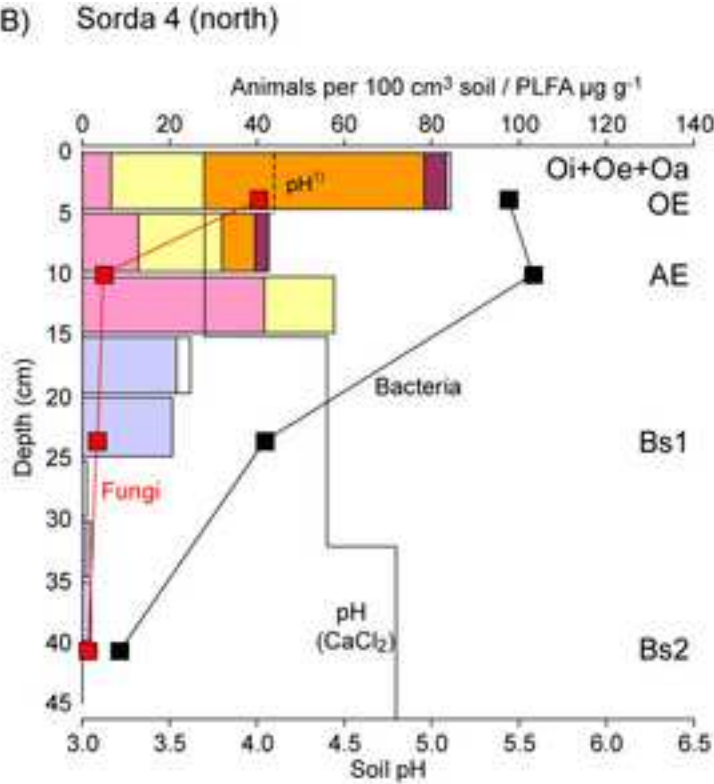
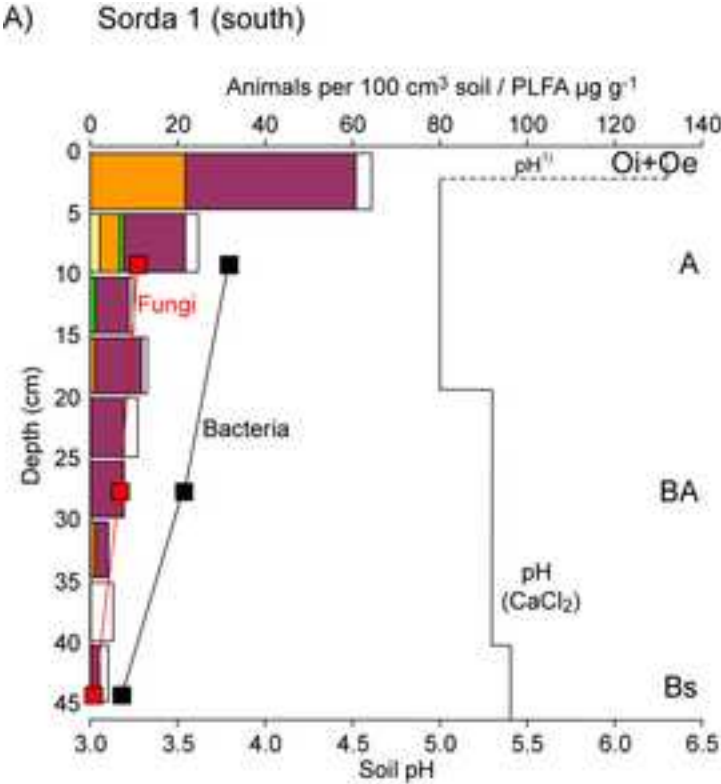
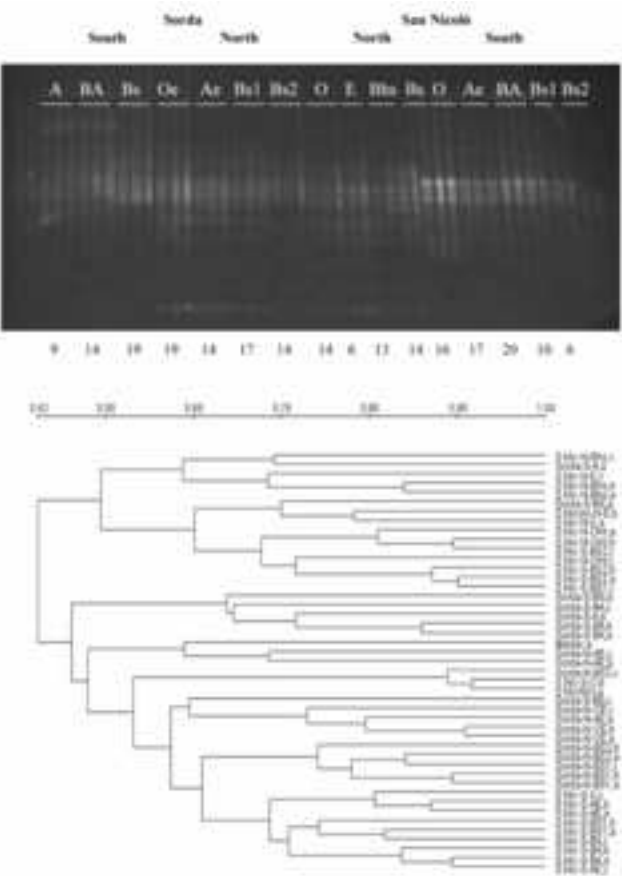
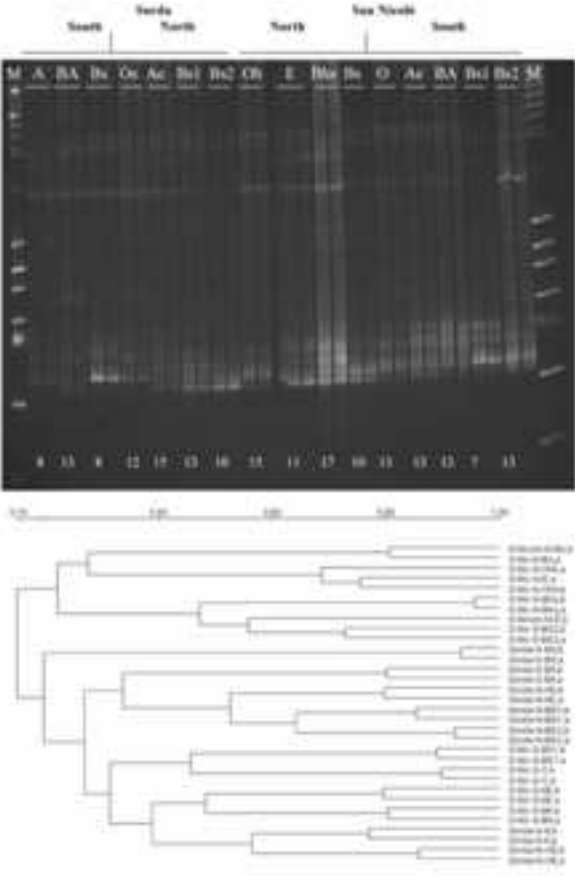


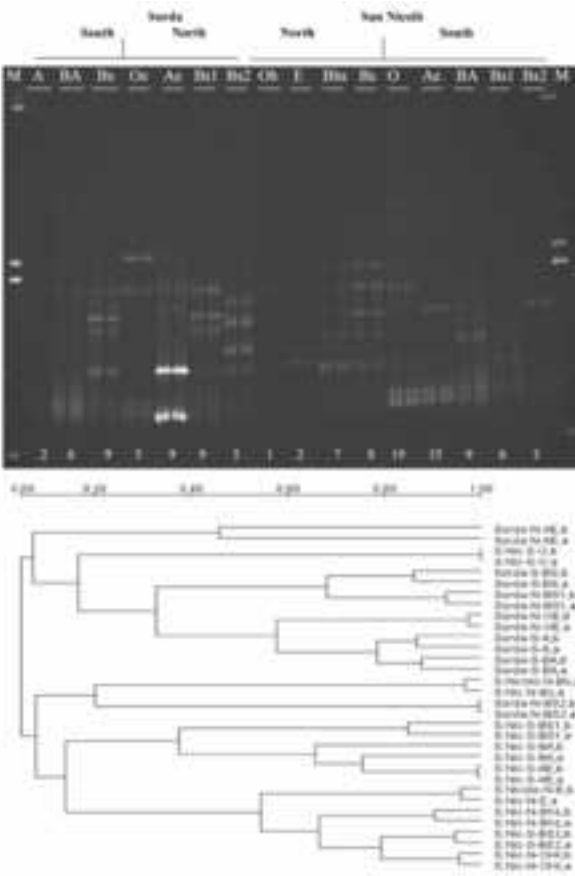
Figure 3 R1
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Bacterial community



Fungal community



Actinomycete community

Figure 4 R1
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